

# Basis Representation Theorem

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*An alternative to proof-by-induction for the Basis Representation Theorem.*

## Basis Representation Theorem

Let  $b$  be a positive integer greater than 1.

For every positive integer  $n$  there is a unique sequence of integers  $d_0, d_1, d_2, \dots, d_k$  such that:

$$n = d_k b^k + d_{k-1} b^{k-1} + \dots + d_2 b^2 + d_1 b^1 + d_0 b^0,$$

where  $0 \leq d_i < b$  for all  $i$  in  $\{0, 1, 2, \dots, k\}$  and  $d_k \neq 0$ .

The paper “[Counting\\*](#)” proves the above theorem by induction, but suggests that it could also be proven by generalizing a technique<sup>†</sup> used to calculate the digits of a number for a given base. The following proof uses that approach, involving repeated divisions of  $n$  by the base  $b$ , the remainders of which end up being the base- $b$  digits of  $n$ .

## Lemma

Let  $b$  be an integer where  $b \neq 0$  and  $c_0, c_1, c_2, \dots, c_n$  be a sequence of integers, then:

$$(((\dots((c_0)b + c_1)b + c_2)b + \dots + c_{n-2})b + c_{n-1})b + c_n) = c_0 b^n + c_1 b^{n-1} + c_2 b^{n-2} + \dots + c_{n-2} b^2 + c_{n-1} b^1 + c_n b^0$$

## Proof of Lemma by Induction

Base case:

When  $n = 1$  we have  $(c_0)b + c_1 = c_0 b^1 + c_1 b^0$ , and also note that the lemma holds for  $n = 0$  since  $(c_0) = c_0 b^0$ .

Induction step:

Assume the lemma is true for  $n = k$  and prove it true for  $n = k + 1$ .

$$\begin{aligned} & (((\dots((c_0)b + c_1)b + c_2)b + \dots + c_{k-2})b + c_{k-1})b + c_k)b + c_{k+1} \\ &= ((c_0 b^k + c_1 b^{k-1} + c_2 b^{k-2} + \dots + c_{k-2} b^2 + c_{k-1} b^1 + c_k b^0)b + c_{k+1}) \\ &= c_0 b^{k+1} + c_1 b^k + c_2 b^{k-1} + \dots + c_{k-2} b^3 + c_{k-1} b^2 + c_k b^1 + c_{k+1} b^0 \end{aligned}$$

QED

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\*Also written by James Rowell.

<sup>†</sup>Exercise 2-iii from the paper “[Counting](#)”.

## Euclidean Division Theorem

For all integers  $a$  and  $b$  such that  $b > 0$ , there exist *unique* integers  $q$  and  $r$  such that:

$$a = qb + r; \text{ where } 0 \leq r < b$$

Definition: In the above equation:

$a$  is the *dividend*      (“the number being divided”)  
 $b$  is the *divisor*      (“the number doing the dividing”)  
 $q$  is the *quotient*      (“from Latin *quotiens* ‘how many times’  $b$  goes into  $a$ ”)  
 $r$  is the *remainder*      (“what’s left over (if anything) after the division”)

## Proof of Basis Representation Theorem

Let  $b$  be a positive integer greater than 1 and let  $n$  be a positive integer.

Dividing  $n$  by  $b$  we get non-negative integers  $q_1$  and  $d_0$  such that,

$$n = q_1b + d_0; \text{ where, } 0 \leq d_0 < b.$$

If  $q_1 \neq 0$  we continue this process by dividing  $b$  into  $q_1$  to get integers  $q_2$  and  $d_1$  such that,

$$q_1 = q_2b + d_1; \text{ where, } 0 \leq d_1 < b.$$

As long as the new quotient (in this case  $q_2$ ) is non-zero, we continue this process until we get a quotient, say  $q_{k+1} = 0$ , as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}
 q_2 &= q_3b + d_2; \text{ where, } 0 \leq d_2 < b, \\
 q_3 &= q_4b + d_3; \text{ where, } 0 \leq d_3 < b, \\
 &\dots, \\
 q_{k-1} &= q_kb + d_{k-1}; \text{ where, } 0 \leq d_{k-1} < b, \\
 q_k &= q_{k+1}b + d_k; \text{ where, } 0 \leq d_k < b.
 \end{aligned}$$

We are guaranteed to get an integer  $k$  for which  $q_{k+1} = 0$  but  $q_k \neq 0$ , because for all  $q_i$  in the above list of equations,

$$\begin{aligned}
 q_i &= q_{i+1}b + d_i \\
 &\geq q_{i+1}b + 0 \\
 &\geq 2q_{i+1} \\
 &> q_{i+1},
 \end{aligned}$$

and letting  $q_0 = n$ , the above strict-inequality leads us to conclude that,

$$q_0 > q_1 > q_2 > q_3 > \dots > q_k > q_{k+1}.$$

Since no quotients are negative then the sequence must terminate with  $q_{k+1} = 0$  for some  $k \geq 0$ .\* We note that  $d_k \neq 0$ , since if it were then  $q_k = 0$ , which can’t be true otherwise the process would have stopped one step earlier.

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\*As an interesting aside,  $k = \lfloor \log_b(n) \rfloor$ .

Back-substituting each expression for  $q_{i+1}$  into the expression for  $q_i$ , starting with  $q_{k+1}$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} q_{k+1} &= 0, \\ q_k &= 0 \cdot b + d_k, \\ q_{k-1} &= (d_k)b + d_{k-1}, \\ q_{k-2} &= ((d_k)b + d_{k-1})b + d_{k-2}, \\ q_{k-3} &= (((d_k)b + d_{k-1})b + d_{k-2})b + d_{k-3}, \\ &\dots, \end{aligned}$$

finally ending with,

$$n = (((\dots(((d_k)b + d_{k-1})b + d_{k-2})b + \dots d_2)b + d_1)b + d_0)$$

By an application of our lemma, where we substitute  $d_k = c_0, d_{k-1} = c_1, \dots, d_1 = c_{k-1}, d_0 = c_k$  (whose only purpose is to swap the indices of the coefficients from ascending to descending), we can conclude that:

$$n = d_k b^k + d_{k-1} b^{k-1} + \dots + d_2 b^2 + d_1 b^1 + d_0 b^0.$$

Furthermore  $0 \leq d_i < b$  for all  $i$  in  $\{0, 1, 2, \dots, k\}$  and  $d_k \neq 0$ .

Finally the “Euclidean Division Theorem” guarantees that each sequence of integers  $d_0, d_1, d_2, \dots, d_k$  is unique because each  $q_i$  and  $d_i$  resulting from each division is unique.

QED